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ABSTRACT

This booklet, part of a series of information resources for teachers, focuses on integrating speech communication activities into writing programs for older students. The activities described have been tested in the integrated skills program at the University of Massachusetts and include concrete plans, assignments, learning activities, and assessment techniques to use in incorporating speaking and listening into writing instruction. The major section of the booklet consists of course plan and assignments divided into six teaching units on patterns of communication, definition, reasoning, analysis, argument, and persuasion. A section on evaluation criteria for students includes sample evaluation sheets and a debate flow chart. The last section summarizes potential problems to be anticipated in developing and implementing an integrated skills approach. (AEA)

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Speech Communication Activities in the Writing Classroom

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Foreword

When we look back on the late 1970s, we will likely remember most strongly the renewed emphasis on the basics in education. Despite the furor and the conflicts surrounding the basics, we find increasing agreement on the need to integrate language arts instruction. However, while much has been written about balanced curricula for the early grades, we have, for the most part, continued to fragment instruction in secondary and, especially, post-secondary English programs.

It is hoped that this booklet will contribute to efforts to integrate language arts instruction for older students. The authors describe an approach that focuses specifically on speech communication activities that have been incorporated successfully into English programs. Most of the activities they describe have been tested in their own large integrated skills program at the University of Massachusetts. High school, as well as college, readers will find concrete plans, assignments, learning activities, and assessment techniques to guide them in incorporating speaking and listening into writing instruction.

This booklet is part of a series of information resources for teachers produced by the Speech Communication Association under the auspices of the Educational Resources Information Center Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills (ERIC/RCS). ERIC is sponsored by the National Institute of Education, which seeks to improve educational practice by providing practitioners with ready access to descriptions of research and exemplary programs. Topics for these booklets are recommended by the ERIC/RCS National Advisory Committee. Suggestions for other topics should be sent to the Clearinghouse.

We hope that teachers will build upon the material presented here and develop additional ways of integrating communication skills instruction.

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1 Rationale for Teaching Speech Activities in the Writing Classroom

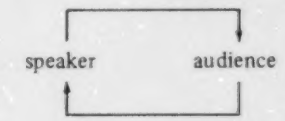
After more than twenty years of teaching English and speech courses, we believe that writing and speaking are conceptually enriched and performance improved and more varied when both activities are taught in the same course. Because of that belief, we have written this book to introduce speech communication activities into the writing classroom.

Writing and speaking can be used to supplement each other because they share at least two basic features: both use language as a primary source of meaning; and both require students to deal with certain essential rhetorical concepts and principles, such as those having to do with thesis, support, definition, inference, assumption, organization, and audience adaptation. We assume throughout this book that the best way to teach both writing and speaking is a *rhetorical* approach; that is, our emphasis is on getting students concerned about what they want to say and on teaching the "mechanics" as they become concerned about expressing their ideas clearly, vigorously, and effectively. If, as we have suggested, the focus in both speaking and writing is on rhetorical invention and the primacy of substance and ideas, then integrating the two modes enables students to engage in a wider variety of activities that teach basic concepts common to both. For example, a discussion of organizational patterns can be applied in both oral and written assignments, and an understanding of different types of organizational patterns can help students become better readers and listeners as they learn to look and listen for those patterns. Skills required for library research—finding materials and synthesizing them into a meaningful message—are the same for preparing a speech as they are for writing a term paper. In a problem-solving discussion, students can go through this process of using resources to come to a conclusion as a collaborative process and then write up the results individually.

Teaching writing and speaking together not only introduces students to a wider application of the skills they learn, but the introduction of speech activities to the writing class also adds conceptual richness in the following seven ways.

Better understanding of discourse as communication. Communication is etymologically derived from *communis*—to share. We may, of course, advise our students to keep an audience "in the mind's eye" while writing an essay, and we may even ask our students to write to a particular audience (other than the teacher). Still, the writer is naturally more inclined to see only the I-it (writer-composition) relation than is the speaker, for whom the I-you (speaker-audience) relation is also immediately present. And as Moffett has crisply put it: "The referential relation of *I-it* must be crossed with the rhetorical relation of *I-you*, in order to produce a whole, authentic discourse."[1]

The very face-to-face nature of much oral communication vividly reminds the speaker of the transactional nature of discourse. As Richard Larson observes in "A Teacher of Writing among Teachers of Speech," the view of discourse "as transaction is often difficult for a writer to adopt but impossible for a speaker to avoid. . . ."[2] The immediacy of audience feedback and the kinds of adaptation speakers may be required to make because of it constantly remind the speaker of the transactional nature of the communicative process. Thus, the communicative model of the speaker's composing process is not one of "injecting" ideas into the reader's mind; rather, in its simplest form, the speaker's model is:



and when the speaker becomes aware of audience members' interaction with each other as well as with the speaker, the model becomes much more complex (see Figure 1). Whenever there is more than one listener, members of the audience tend to react to each other as well as to the speaker. Thus, there occurs not only interstimulation between speaker and listener (and they may change roles during the process of dialogue), but also interstimulation among listeners.

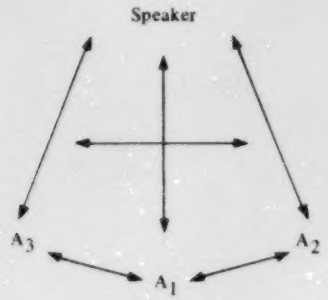


Fig. 1. Speaker-audience model

The minimal model shown in Figure 1 reminds the speaker (writer) that the audience (listeners or readers) is *active* rather than passive during the communicative transaction. In speaking, the act of invention is at least partially a public process, and, to a varying degree depending on the type of speech activity, it is a cooperative process. Larson describes his growing awareness of the "speech teacher's view":

> Of . . . immediate consequence for the teacher of writing and literature is the conferee's recognition that inventing is not only the work of a speaker or writer (a "transmitter"), but of the listener or reader (the "receiver"), too. The listener in the transaction, the conferees argued, reinvents what he receives (and in oral discourse, may compel the speaker-transmitter himself to reconceive, or reinvent, his utterance).[3]

Particularly if, after a speech, questions may be asked directly of speakers, the clarity and impact of their message can be instantly perceived. Group writing projects can help reinforce such awareness.

Fuller awareness of composition as a process. Although there is growing emphasis in English classrooms on prewriting, writing, and rewriting, oral activities can make students aware of rhetorical invention as process. For example, one of the assignments we shall include later is the extemporaneous speech. There, students are urged not to write out word for word what they want to say. "A speech is not an essay standing on its hind legs," we tell them. They are asked to decide on a purpose, to develop an *outline* of what they want to say, and to acquire more supporting material than they expect to use. Then, during the act of speaking to a live audience, they will need to make on-the-spot decisions about what specific supporting material to use, what points need repetition or development because an audience seems puzzled by them, and the like. Such an extemporaneous presentation differs from impromptu speaking because it is carefully prepared in advance.

Deeper understanding of source ethos. Speech activities can reinforce the important notion of the composer as reflecting a triumvirate of I-Eye-Aye.[4] That is, the composer comes to the task of composing with a complex of knowledge, attitudes, and motives, and with an image of the world and of how things fit together, seen through a selective perceptual screen. The composer says yes to certain purposes, organizational schemes, and pieces of supporting material and rejects others; chooses to express ideas formally or informally; to use one word and not another. The literature of speech communication, however, more often relies on the concept of *ethos* than on *voice* or *persona*. *Ethos* encompasses more than either of the other two. Ethos may be defined as the audience's perception of the speaker. Thus, a speaker may *be* honest and knowledgeable but may not be *perceived* as "honest and knowledgeable" by the audience. Ethos, therefore, is a term intimately related to the communicative transaction.

A number of studies have attempted to isolate the components of ethos.[5] Several of those dimensions appear to be inteiligence (knowledge, expertise), character, and goodwill. For example, in a speech setting, being unprepared, rambling, or unnecessarily redundant may be perceived as an act of bad will toward the audience, of not "caring enough" about them to be properly prepared. Dynamism is yet another dimension of ethos sometimes cited. This dimension may include the physical and vocal dynamism of the speaker as well as the "animation" that comes from varying the types of supporting material and using lively language.

Speaker ethos is not fixed; it is in a state of becoming. It may change during a particular communication act or during a series of speeches and discussions. Communicating in face-to-face situations can make this feature of source credibility or ethos more readily apparent.

Fuller understanding of the nature of language and the shared construction of meaning. As Barbour and Goldberg have observed: "Meaning is something that happens inside us that consists of responding to the messages or stimuli that surround us. When two individuals are engaged in interpersonal communication, they are involved in the process of sharing meanings."[6] That clarity of language in a communicative situation does not mean merely "clear to the speaker" can be made especially vivid when students ask in face-to-face

settings, "What *is* a copepod?" or, "What do you *mean* when you say . . . ?" The speaker must then pursue a definition until the meaning is clear to someone else. The construction of group definitions also reinforces the notion of "sharing meanings"; such definitions are a key step in the group discussion activities in the next chapter. Working toward group definitions may also make more vivid the ways in which language shapes our "reality." Group writing or pair writing can help reinforce understandings gained in these more public attempts to arrive at mutually clear and acceptable meanings.

Because of the face-to-face nature of speech communication, with the additional help of the nonverbal dimensions of meaning, students can more readily understand that language "reveals every facet of the cognitive, conative, and affective aspects of personality."[7]

Fuller awareness of all the possibilities of language. In both writing and speaking, contrasts facilitate emphasis and clarity. For example, in some printed messages (particularly in contemporary advertising), the size of letters, their colors, intensity, shape, and even position on the paper are manipulated for effect. (Note the use of italics in this book to make important words stand out and the use of different type sizes and shapes in headings.) Still, the student essayist probably will not be advised to use many of these devices.

The student speaker, on the other hand, has a variety of readily usable contrasts: volume, pitch, intonation, voice quality. There are few exact written counterparts for these vocal contrasts. For example, in ordinary English writing there are no conventions for indicating intonation. The various punctuation marks are helpful but neither exact nor versatile. The period at the end of the sentence "I'm going home" does not tell us whether *I'm*, *going*, or *home* is emphasized. A change in oral emphasis gives slightly different meanings to the sentence (I'm going *home*. I'm *going* home. *I'm* going home.) As Daniel Jones, the phonetician, says, "Most of the shades of meaning that speech is capable of conveying . . . are either incapable of expression in writing or can be expressed only by added words or by alterations of wording."[8]

Fuller awareness of the role of interpersonal and group interaction in providing the materials of discourse. Speaking and listening, as well as reading and writing, are often ways of finding, processing, and disseminating information and ideas. As Moffett reminds us: "Using language is essentially a social action, which, however, becomes internalized as a private behavior. The quality of individual utterance depends much on the kinds of dialogues that have been previously absorbed. Thus a good group process provides the external model for the inner processes it will foster."[9] That is why, in *Teaching the Universe of Discourse*, he comments that "group discussion is a fundamental activity that should be a staple learning process from kindergarten through college. It is an activity to be learned both for its own sake and for the sake of learning other things by means of it. It is a major source of that discourse which the student will transform internally into thought."[10]

Including a formal unit on discussion helps students develop greater understanding of group process, learn to analyze and improve their own behavior in groups, and develop their ability to observe what is occurring in group communication and to evaluate the effectiveness of that communication.[11] Not only do students learn about group process, but the development of interpersonal and group skills in a discussion unit can improve the general climate of the classroom and enable students to participate more effectively in daily classroom discussions. Moreover, "role taking" in discussion exercises (see Unit 4 in the next chapter) may help students deal more directly with the concept of voice in their writing.

More detailed understanding of the construction of arguments and of argument as process. A debate unit in which the argument of a particular student is tested not only by the student on the opposite side of a question but by the class as it overhears the debate helps the student develop skill more effectively than any other exercise. But, perhaps even more important, the class can see arguments as they develop and learn that almost all issues have at least two sides, that the same "facts" and information can often be used on either side. They learn to identify the issues involved in a particular proposition, evaluate the strength of various arguments used to support it and to realize that the strength of an argument derives in part from the attitudes and beliefs of the audience to whom it is directed.

Even if writing and speaking did not both supplement and complement each other in these ways, there are at least two further advantages to teaching both modes of discourse in the same classroom. One advantage is that this provides a greater variety of activities and thereby may create a more animated environment for teaching the fundamentals of discourse.

Another advantage to such teaching is that students will better understand that while there are important similarities between the two basic modes, the restraints operating on the writer are different from those affecting the speaker. For one thing, there are functional differences. As E. D. Hirsch explains it:

> Some composition handbooks admonish students to write naturally as they speak – . . . advice which overlooks the functional distinctions between speech and writing. For oral speech normally takes place in a concrete situation that supplies external, extra-verbal clues to meaning, while written speech, lacking this dimension, is able to communicate effectively only if it supplies much of its context within the verbal medium alone. Hence, for native speakers, the chief difficulty in learning to write well is in learning how to use language in an unaccustomed way. The functional peculiarity of writing is its need to furnish its own context.[12]

George Yoos explains yet other differences when he says:

> In contrast with written rhetoric, speakers face audiences. Insofar as a speaker's act is simultaneous with his audience's perception of him, the speaker, as with pen and ink drawings, cannot modify his act of expression. A speaker is constrained by his own visage, voice, and actions in his presentation. Nor can he define his aim freely apart from his audience context. He cannot pretend to be someone other than what he appears to his audience. He is captive to his situation. Yet despite the fact that speakers are severely situationally constrained, there is an opposite or liberating constraint in public address. There's an expectation, if not a demand, to defy expectation, to be innovative, enterprising, and delightfully surprising. The speaker is expected to find, discover, and invent words for the occasion. The speaker is not just being called upon to conform to the conventions. . . . Writers, on the other hand, are usually freed from particular contexts, occasions, audiences, and situations. Writers simply do not have an audience present in physical terms. They address one in the present within their texts, but writers in that sense are imaginatively projecting their audience. Their real audience is in the future. Not only are writers free to elect their audience and situation, they're also free to construct their own style and tone. They control the presentation of themselves in writing in idealized ways that speakers cannot. In speaking there is a need to harmonize one's personal display of character, expression, and action with words. The writer, however, since his sole medium is within his written text, can control fictively all the dramatic aspects of his rhetoric. Walter Ong argues that writers create imaginative audiences, but writers also create imaginative ethos, voice, tone, style, and attitudes toward audience. Writers are thus situationaliy freed to choose their aims, voice, occasion, audience, and situation. They create these elements within their text.[13]

Thus, students trained in both writing *and* speaking will gain a broader and deeper understanding of the communication process than students who are taught *either* writing *or* speaking. In practical terms, this understanding should help them become more informed and articulate communicators in both modes of discourse.

Notes

1. James Moffett, *Teaching the Universe of Discourse* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1968), p. 31.

2. Richard Larson, "A Teacher of Writing among Teachers of Speech," *Western Speech* (Winter 1972), p. 4.

3. Ibid., p. 7.

4. Jane Blankenship, "In the Presence of the Word" (Presidential address), *Spectra* 15 (Feb. 1979), pp. 6-9.

5. Cf. James C. McCroskey, *An Introduction to Rhetorical Communication*, 2nd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972), pp. 63-81; Kenneth Andersen, *Persuasion: Theory and Practice* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971), pp. 217-263; Kenneth Andersen and Theodore Clevenger, Jr., "A Summary of Experimental Research in Ethos," *Speech Monographs* (June 1963), pp. 59-78.

6. Alton Barbour and Alvin A. Goldberg, *Interpersonal Communication: Teaching Strategies and Resources* (Urbana, Ill.: ERIC/RCS and SCA, 1974), p. 15.

7. Karl R. Wallace, *Understanding Discourse* (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press 1970), p. 15.

8. Daniel Jones, "Differences between Spoken and Written Language," *Journal of Education* (May 1943), p. 207. For a lengthier discussion see "Oral and Written Style" in Jane Blankenship, *A Sense of Style* (Belmont, Calif.: Dickenson Publishing Co., 1969).

9. James Moffett, *A Student-Centered Language Arts Curriculum, Grades K-13* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1973), p. 12.

10. Moffett, *Teaching the Universe of Discourse*, p. 94.

11. Cassandra Book and Kathleen Galvin, *Instruction in and about Small Group Discussion* (Urbana, Ill.: ERIC/RCS and SCA, 1975), p. 1.

12. E. D. Hirsch, Jr., *Philosophy of Composition* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1977), p. 7.

13. George E. Yoos, "Rhetorical Action: Rules, Conventions," a speech presented at the 1978 convention of the Speech Communication Association.

2 Course Plan and Assignments

The course described here is designed as a two-semester sequence. Four goals are emphasized:

1. Students should view writing and speaking, as well as reading and listening, as ways of discovering ideas—of defining for themselves and others what they think and believe.
2. Students should develop criteria to evaluate their own and others' speaking and writing.
3. Students should improve their own communication skills through practice.
4. Through classroom interaction, students should assume some responsibility for the development of other class members.

Especially emphasized are skills of invention and adaptation to situation and audience: discovering what to say to meet the constraints of a variety of communication settings. Assignments are designed to simulate communication situations that students are likely to encounter outside the classroom.

The course is organized as a series of units that present patterns as ways of finding and communicating ideas. The three units in the first half of the course deal with patterns of communication, patterns of definition, and patterns of reasoning—ways of moving from information to inference. The second three units, based on the reflective-thinking pattern, center on analysis, argument, and persuasion. Each unit includes objectives that suggest the particular writing and speaking skills to be emphasized and some sample activities and assignments to develop those skills. The assignments described in this chapter are merely illustrative.

It is presumed that students can write a complete sentence, organize a paragraph, and use standard English. Problems in these areas can be dealt with in writing clinics or through individual student conferences; but they are not included in the objectives and activities listed here.

Unit One. Patterns of Communication

Objectives

1. Students should become better acquainted with each other and become aware of the class as audience.
2. Students should become aware of themselves as senders and receivers of messages.
3. Students should become aware of the importance of asking the right questions to get information.
4. Students should demonstrate in their written and oral assignments an understanding of thesis statement and development.
5. Students should become aware of the dialogic nature of communication.

The major affective goal for the beginning of the course is to get students acquainted with each other, to establish an atmosphere in which they will feel free to communicate, and to give them information about the audience they will be working with. The major content or cognitive goal is to introduce students to the concept of communication as a two-way process. Students should learn to view messages, whether written or spoken, in the whole communication context.

Oral Activities

Three activities that are designed to introduce students to each other and to generate discussion of various aspects of the communication process are sink or swim interviews,[1] self-disclosure lists,[2] and introductory paragraphs.

Sink or swim interviews. Divide the class into groups of three, designating one student in each group as the interviewer, one as the interviewee, and one as the observer. The interviewers will have five minutes to discover everything they can about their interviewees: education, families, hobbies, interests, beliefs and attitudes, and so on. Interviewees will respond as they

see fit; for example, if a question is deemed "none of your business," they should say so. Observers will note how interviews are started and ended, the questions asked, the answers given, evidence of motivation (or lack of it), listening problems of interviewer and interviewee, nonverbal communication, communication breakdowns, and problems caused by lack of preparation and interviewing experience. At the end of four and a half minutes, tell interviewers they have thirty seconds to end their interviews. Begin the second round immediately, having the students in each group change roles. At the end of another five minutes, stop this round and begin the third, having the students change roles again. Each student will thus have an opportunity to be an interviewer, an interviewee, and an observer.

After the final round, have the whole class discuss the following questions: How did interviewers begin and end interviews? If openings and closings differed from one round to another, what may account for these differences: different interviewer or interviewee; experience from earlier rounds; anxiety level or "stage fright" of the interviewer; previous relationships between interviewer and interviewee (close friends, total strangers, casual acquaintances, etc.)? How did lack of preparation and interviewing experience affect questions and answers? If this had been a planned interview, what might the interviewers have done during advance preparation to make the interviews more effective? Were there communication breakdowns? If so, what seemed to cause them: language barriers, listening problems, lack of motivation, the classroom setting with several interviews going on at once, failure to notice nonverbal communication? How were questions and answers communicated nonverbally? What major problems did interviewers feel they encountered? How would they propose to eliminate these problems in future interviews?

Self-disclosure lists. Each student is asked to list on a sheet of paper the five most important things about himself or herself, from his or her own point of view. Allow three to eight minutes for this part of the exercise.

After they have finished their lists, students are asked to pair off. Each member of the pair, in turn, reads his or her list of five personal characteristics to his or her partner, and discusses similarities and differences. Allow five to ten minutes for this phase.

Each pair is asked to join two other pairs, forming groups of six. Each of the six is to introduce his or her partner to the group, describing him or her in terms of the characteristics on the list. The introduction may also draw on information from the discussion of similarities and differences.

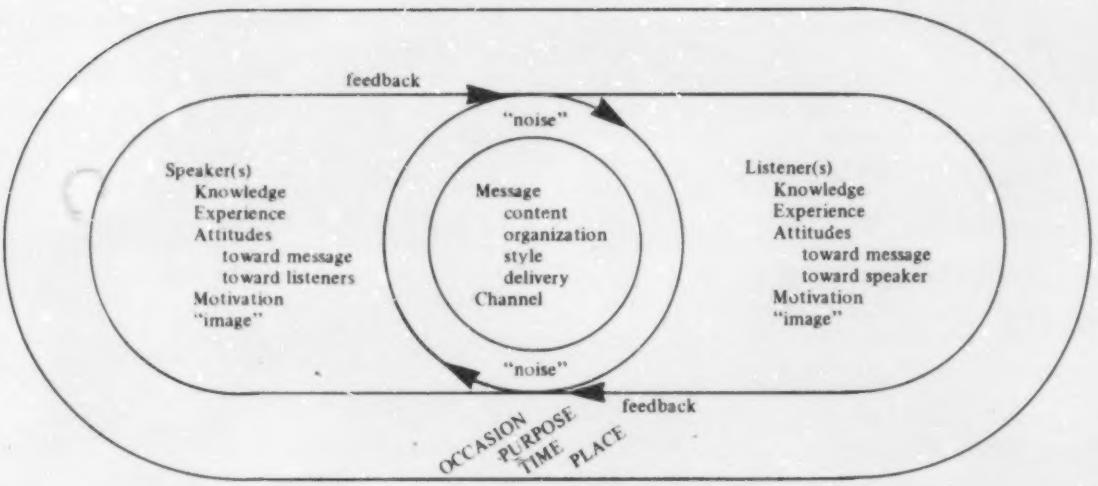
After all members have been introduced by their partners, the group discusses differences and similarities between lists and their reactions to the activity as a whole. The discussion may explore how different individuals decided what characteristics about themselves to list. Would the items selected for listing have been different if the participants knew each other better? Were participants conscious of listing items that would project a particular image to others? (This exercise also provides a basis for discussing skills and problems associated with listening.)

Introductory paragraphs. Each student in the class should be given fifteen to twenty minutes to write a paragraph introducing himself or herself to the class. Students should be urged to frame a central idea for the paragraph, perhaps centering on some unique characteristic or quality. They should be instructed not to include any detail about their physical appearance or sex, nor any detail that would immediately reveal the writer's identity.

The class is then divided into groups of five or six. The members of each group are instructed to learn each other's first names. The papers in each group are shuffled, so that no one knows whose paragraph he or she has. Each group member reads a paragraph aloud. As the paragraphs are read, the group members write down the name of the person they think is the author. When all the paragraphs are read, the authors reveal themselves and the group can check the validity of their guesses. Discussion can center on what factual clues and assumptions led to their conclusions.

The circular nature of the communication process is graphically illustrated in the communication models that appear in the opening chapters of virtually every oral communication textbook.[3] The model in Figure 2 makes clear that all messages occur in a context of time, place, and occasion, and that feedback from the listener or reader (even though in the latter case feedback is not necessarily immediate or direct) is a major element in the communication process. Messages should be represented not as discrete and separate from the writer/speaker and the reader/listener, but rather as something dependent on interpretation by the receiver. In other words, the received message may not be the same as the intended message. Any good model makes these ideas apparent.

The importance of feedback in the communication process can be dramatized in a number of classroom activities, one of which follows:



Channel – How the message is transmitted: by writing, spoken words, visual aids, TV, radio, face-to-face

Noise – Interference from physical noise, the perceptual screens of speaker and listener, poor word choice, etc.

Feedback – That which tells us how our message is being interpreted

Fig. 2. A model of the communication process

Scrambled T. This exercise requires two sets of the five-piece Scrambled T puzzle (Figure 3). Each set of pieces should be made of five different colors, with corresponding pieces in each set cut from different colors.

Two participants, a "student" and a "teacher," are chosen and placed with their backs to each other or at opposite ends of a table with a screen between them. They should be able to hear but not see each other. The teacher is given an assembled puzzle. The student is given the same puzzle (except that corresponding pieces are not the same color) unassembled. The object of the activity is for the teacher to tell the student how to assemble the puzzle. The exercise proceeds according to the following rules:

1. The teacher may say whatever she or he chooses, but once instructions have been given, she or he may ask no questions of and receive no comments from the course instructor, class, or student.
2. The student in the experiment may not ask any questions or make any comments. She or he is to say nothing, simply try to follow the teacher's instructions.
3. The teacher and the student are not to look at each other.
4. The class is to observe without comment.

After ten minutes or less, the student will be hopelessly bogged down, and the teacher will have gone as far as possible with the directions. The two can then be asked to repeat the process (mix up the student's puzzle pieces again and begin from scratch), only this time the student will be allowed to ask whatever questions he or she wants. Or a new student can be recruited and the same procedure repeated without allowing feedback, and then the restriction can be removed to allow conversation between teacher and student.

In presenting the puzzle, the course instructor should avoid naming it; it should be referred to only as "the puzzle." Teachers will often fail to tell students that the completed puzzle is a T. (Indeed, it could be argued that because of the nature of the puzzle, such a direction at the beginning might be misleading; but it will not be if the student listens carefully.)

If the student decides that two pieces go together in a certain way, he or she may stop listening, and the idea becomes "noise" in the system.

If the teacher announces that the task is to put the pieces together to form a T and leaves the student to do it alone, the student should be sent to another room to complete the task and a new student chosen. Then the teacher is instructed to give the new student step-by-step directions. The two working together will probably finish first.

There is no one correct way to give instructions. Orienting the listener helps (telling what the finished puzzle will look like; describing each piece and giving it a number or name). Relative positioning also helps (e.g., "Imagine a two inch diameter clock face on the table before you. Place the three sided piece at nine o'clock on the dial").

The importance of feedback is immediately obvious. The exercise also illustrates the need for repetition; the teacher will usually get several requests to slow down and repeat. Word choice is also important; some students will not know what a trapezoid is or what is meant by "put the piece parallel"—parallel to what? From the exercise the class can learn several principles of good communication.

The T puzzle (or some similar activity) can lead to a discussion of the various parts of the communication model. Once the students are familiar with the basic theory, they can apply the model to actual communication situations. Following are five sample writing assignments that develop from discussion of the puzzle and introduction of the parts of the model.

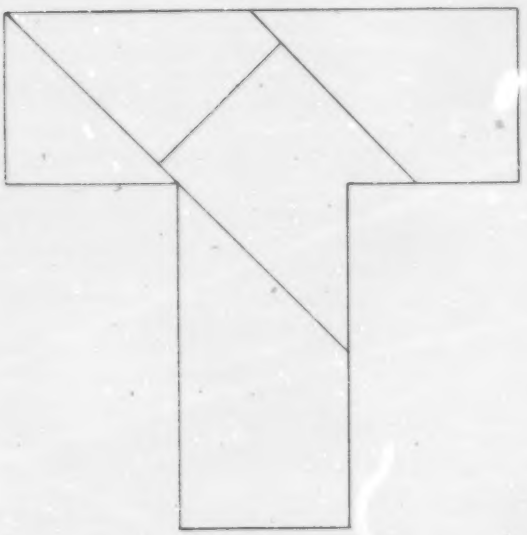


Fig. 3. Scrambled T puzzle

Analysis Activities

Analysis of communication situation. Write an analysis of a communication situation you have witnessed or in which you have participated. This may be a person-to-person situation, a small group, a speaker addressing an audience, a television or radio program, or a written communication. (Some examples are a dorm bull session, a parent-child confrontation, a classroom lecture, an organization meeting, a letter, an advertisement, a newspaper editorial, a salesman with a customer, an employer with an employee.) Analyze the situation in terms of the communication model we have discussed. Consider the following questions as you plan your paper, but do not answer them one by one; they are merely to stimulate your thinking. The final paper should be a theme with your own central idea, analyzing the situation you observe.

> Who is the source of the message? What is the relationship between the source and the audience? What experience, knowledge, attitudes, and values does the source bring to the situation? What does he or she know about the audience?
>
> What channel is being used? Is there noise in the channel? How does it affect the communication?
>
> What is the purpose of the message? Do you think the purpose is clear to the audience?
>
> Who is the audience? What are their values, attitudes, knowledge, and experience relevant to the topic under discussion? What do they know about the speaker?
>
> What kind of feedback is there? Immediate or delayed? Verbal or nonverbal? Does the sender seem aware of it (has he or she *anticipated* the feedback)? Does it affect the message "in process"?
>
> What is the setting? What effects could it have on the situation? (Setting includes time, place, and events that might affect the communication process.)
>
> Was the message sender effective? Did he or she accomplish the intended purpose? Why or why not?

Observation of communication breakdown. Think of a situation you have observed or been part of in which communication broke down. It may involve spoken or written messages or both. What caused the breakdown? Was the message unclear? Was there "noise" in the channel? Was there adequate feedback? Did the sender respond to feedback? What was the result of the breakdown? Could it have been avoided? How? (The list of questions in the previous assigment can be used here.)

Feedback observation. Describe a situation in a meeting, church, class, living group, family group, etc., in which the conditions were as follows: (1) Feedback was apparent (present) and was ignored by the speaker. How was this reflected in the behaviors of the speaker and of his or her listeners? (2) Feedback was present and had an effect on the speaker. What was the behavior of the speaker as a result of the feedback? How did the listeners respond?

Feedback in a communication system. Observe the operations of an office group or management staff in some company for at least an hour. Identify instances of actual feedback in the speech communications systems of the office. Note such things as telephone conversations, instructions, orders, problem-solving conferences, information conferences, and the like.[4]

Communication model and explanation. Design your own communication model and explain it. The model should include source, channel, audience, feedback, and setting.

Writing Workshops

While it is simple enough to teach the model, *practicing* the art of audience adaptation is probably the most difficult part of the course. As all teachers of writing and speaking know, students tend to blame audiences for their own lack of clarity. One advantage of oral interaction is immediate feedback, which tells the speakers what their listeners do not understand. It can also reveal the audience members' ability to listen.

Oral activities readily illustrate the principles represented in the model, but writing presents more problems. How can students get immediate feedback concerning clarity, interest, persuasiveness, etc.? Just as classmates are audiences for oral exercises, they should also be audiences for written work. In an excellent ERIC publication, *Group Inquiry Techniques for Teaching Writing*, Thom Hawkins describes two types of writing workshops that provide opportunities for students to respond to each other's work.[5] In what the author calls the "regular workshop," students are divided into permanent work groups that meet when papers are due. Two or three students agree to have their papers duplicated for each session, providing a copy for each member of the group (so that everyone eventually submits his or her work for discussion). Group members evaluate the papers, following the three-step procedure Hawkins describes: (1) Students read, perhaps twice, without marking the paper in any way. (2) Students discuss the paper with the author (spoken feedback). (3) Students make marginal notes and, on the last page, write general observations about the whole essay.

Hawkins suggests an alternative, the "improvised workshop," which we use for most major assignments. No duplication is necessary; students simply pair off and exchange papers. Responders do not write on the original essay, but make notes on a separate sheet of paper. We use a "Response Sheet," a simple form with a margin and places for the names of author and reader.[6] The readers number the margin of the original text, indicating sections they wish to comment on. They put corresponding numbers in the margin of the response sheet and write their comments. General observations are written at the top of the sheet. This system can be used by both teacher and students; it has the advantages of providing more space for messy comment writers and of leaving the author's manuscript clean, rather than bleeding red ink. (Although Hawkins doesn't allow students to revise after these impromtu workshops, we always give them that option.)

Working in groups and giving feedback to peers on their writing and speaking efforts are skills that students develop through guidance and practice. Students should discuss which kinds of comments are helpful and which are not; they should be encouraged to make positive comments. As in any group activity, success is more likely if the group's task is well-defined and the members are given a specified time to complete it. Particularly in the beginning, students can be given very specific tasks; for example, they may be asked to respond to the aspect of the paper they find most interesting. They should be encouraged to ask writers for explanations of passages that are not clear. After some work on mechanics, they may be asked to edit a paper, looking for certain kinds of mechanical errors or awkward constructions that have been reviewed in discussion.

Listening Activities

Many of the activities described in this chapter require that students work in small groups; several are designed to teach small group communication skills directly. One of the most important of these skills, particularly

for students responding to speeches and papers, is listening. Some examples of listening activities follow.

Listening test. Ask students to listen as the instructor reads a short, exciting narrative with quite a few details. Then test the class on the details of the story, using true-false questions. Tell the students they will be tested and read the story again. They should not be allowed to take notes. Then have them compare the two tests. The improvement on the second test will be dramatic in most cases. (This activity illustrates that people listen in different ways, and that most of us do not listen well unless we have some particular purpose or motivation.)

Communication session. Read the following information to the students once at a normal rate of speed. Then give them the test that follows.

> *Today is your first day on an office job. A fellow worker gives you the following information:*
>
> Since you are new to the job, I'd like to fill you in on a few details. The boss probably told you that typing and distribution of mail were your most important duties. Well, they may be, but let me tell you, answering the phone is going to take most of your time. Now about typing. Goodwin will give the most, but much of what he gives you may have nothing to do with the department—I'd be careful about spending all my time doing his private work. Mason doesn't give much, but you'd better get it right—she's really a stickler. I've always asked to have tests at least two days in advance. Paulson is always dropping stuff on the desk at the last minute.
>
> The mail situation sounds tricky, but you'll get used to it. Mail comes twice a day—at 10 a.m. and at 2 p.m. You've got to take the mail that's been left on the desk to Charles Hall for pickup. If you really have some rush stuff, take it right to the campus post office in Harper Hall. It's a little longer walk, but for really rush stuff, it's better. When you pick up at McDaniel Hall, sort it. You'll have to make sure that only mail for the people up here gets delivered here; if there is any that doesn't belong here, bundle it back up and mark it for return to the campus post office.
>
> Now, about your breaks. You get ten minutes in the morning, forty minutes at noon, and fifteen minutes in the afternoon. If you're smart, you'll leave before the 10:30 classes let out. That's usually a pretty crush time. Three of the teachers are supposed to have office hours then and if they don't keep them, the students will be on your back. If you take your lunch at 11:45, you'll be back before the main crew goes.
>
> Oh, one more thing. You are supposed to call Jeno at 8:15 every morning to wake him. If you forget, he gets very testy. Well, good luck.

Answer true or false:

1. Mail that does not belong in this office should be taken to Harper Hall. (F)
2. Mail comes twice a day. (T)
3. You should be back from lunch by 12:30. (T)
4. Paulson is good about dropping work off early. (F)
5. Mason gives the most work. (F)
6. Goodwin gives work that has little to do with the department. (T)
7. Your main jobs, according to the boss, are typing and answering the telephone. (F)
8. Mail should be taken to McDaniel Hall. (F)
9. The post office is in Harper Hall. (T)
10. You get a 15-minute morning break. (F)
11. Call Jeno every morning at 8:45. (F)
12. You don't have to type tests. (F)[7]

Listening and perceptual screens. Select two or three students and give them the following problem:[8]

> *The Island.* Somewhere in the middle of the uncharted Pacific Ocean there exists a green and uninhabited island. Seven people—a pregnant woman, an internationally famous doctor, a well-known American scientist, a teenage girl, an elderly diabetic man, a Catholic priest, and the Vice-President of the United States—are stranded on the island.
>
> A rescue plane finds the island, but can pick up only one of the seven to be returned to civilization. The chances of a second trip by the plane are remote indeed (though not impossible) because the island is uncharted. Although the people left on the island will not starve, they must be able to meet necessary social and biological needs in order to survive.
>
> Which person should be allowed to make the plane trip home?

The three volunteers should be given a few minutes to prepare individual statements, each telling his or her solution to the problem and giving reasons for the choice. They should present their conclusions to the class. Their talks and any subsequent discussion among them should be taped. The class should be instructed to listen but take no notes. Then each member of the class should write down a summary of each speaker's conclusion and justification. Using the tape, the class can then check to see how well they listened.

A variation of this exercise would be to have the teacher prepare a solution and defense, writing a statement of the solution. Both the problem and the teacher's statement are read to the class. The students can then be tested to see how well they "heard" the problem and the proposed solution. Because this problem involves value questions on which students are likely to have strong opinions, it can be used to illustrate the effects of this aspect of the perceptual screen on listening.[9]

"I Hear You Saying . . ." Class should be divided in half, with one half designated speakers and the other half listeners. Both groups will speak; but speakers will prepare in advance, while listeners will respond impromptu. (If time permits, students can switch roles and do the exercise again.) Speakers should be instructed to prepare a 2-3 minute talk on a controversial issue they feel strongly about. Current campus issues are good topics, as well as value issues such as moral standards or religious beliefs. The speaker's purpose is not to persuade, but to explain his or her point of view, to tell the audience "why I believe." The listener is instructed to listen for the reasons given for the speaker's position. After each speech, the listener assigned to that speaker will be given one or two minutes to summarize what the speaker has said. The speaker can then comment on the accuracy of the summary. Speeches can be taped to check content.

As an alternative, all students can be given the speech assignment above. Class is divided into groups of three. Each member writes a precis of speeches given by other members of his or her group. After the speeches, the groups assemble and the speakers read and comment on the summaries. Which are most accurate? Where was there misunderstanding? Who does the group think is to blame, the speaker or the listener? How could the speaker have made his or her point more clearly?

Unit Two. Patterns of Definition: Defining for Self and Others

Objectives

1. Students should understand that defining can be a means of discovering ideas.
2. Students should understand definition as a method of development.
3. Students should be able to frame at least three types of definition: traditional, metaphorical, and operational.
4. Students should understand the difference between denotative and connotative definitions.
5. Students should demonstrate their ability to adapt the same topic to different communicative situations.
6. Students should develop delivery skills involved in presenting a short informative speech.
7. Students should become familiar with the library as a resource.

The major content goal of this unit is to introduce students to three forms of definition: traditional, metaphorical, and operational. (Classification of types of definitions is arbitrary and varies depending on the source. The types chosen here are based on a discussion of definition, "Writing and Thinking with Definitions," by C. K. Smith;[10] descriptions given here are also based on the Smith book.)

Activities

If they have thought about definitions at all, most students have worked with traditional definition: one puts the word to be defined in a category and differentiates it from similar words in the same category. They may use definitions, along with examples, facts, and comparisons, as ways of developing an idea. The reason for introducing metaphorical and operational definition is that these forms provide students with ways of discovering new aspects of a topic. Most writing teachers have used exercises that require students to construct metaphors. Examining one's topic through juxtaposition with a seemingly dissimilar concept is a common technique for stimulating creativity.[11] Operational defining is a less familiar concept for students, but it is increasingly important in the social sciences. It is the attempt to define an abstract concept by "describing a process by which you can measure it" and to give it "mathematical symbolic meaning in addition to verbal meaning." An example is the laws enacted in several states which specify the reading on an electroencephalograph as the criterion for determining life or death.

Students can work with the three types of definition in various classroom activities: (a) Students practice framing the different types of definition, alone, as a class, or working in small groups. They can define a term using all three forms of definition. (b) Students define themselves metaphorically (for instance, as animals) and explain their choices. (c) Working in small groups, students design an experiment that would define operationally some aspect of the communication model (for example, measuring audience response, message content, or audience understanding). They write a group report describing their design.

Possible speaking assignments to be prepared outside of class include the following:

1. 1 minute talk explaining a term that has for the speaker a special, personal connotative meaning different from its conventional denotative meaning.
2. 5-10 minute informative speech defining a term, using one or a combination of the forms of definition discussed above.

3. 5-10 minute report of a study that depends on an operational definition of an abstract concept (such as those often reported in *Psychology Today*). Students should be asked to examine the assumptions underlying the definitions. For example, do they agree or disagree that loneliness can be measured by defining it as occurring "when a person's network of social relationships is smaller than the person desires"?[12]

A writing assignment based on the speaking activities described above might ask students to write an article or a manuscript speech explaining the term they spoke about in Assignment 2 to an audience other than their classmates. (They might specify a particular magazine or journal as their audience; or they might write a speech designed to explain the term to a different age group.) Students who do the report in Assignment 3 could write an analysis of how they adapted the material they researched for the speech. Whichever assignment students choose, they should include in their papers a discussion of the differences between communications designed for different audiences and situations.

Unit Three. Patterns of Reasoning: Information to Inference

Objectives:

1. Students should understand the differences between fact, inference, and judgment.
2. Students should examine assumptions and their significance in making inferences.
3. Students should practice library research skills.
4. Students should practice skills involved in synthesizing information for reports.
5. Students should cooperate to plan and prepare a group presentation for the class.

This unit provides a transition from the development of skills involving gathering, analyzing, and presenting information clearly and in an interesting way to skills involved in using materials to make inferences, build arguments, and adapt materials to persuade audiences.

Students should be introduced to the characteristics of facts and inferences. A useful list of distinctions appears in *Nothin' Never Happens* (see p. 13).[13]

Activities

The following class activities can be used to stimulate discussion of the differences between fact and inference:

Description game. Two students sit facing each other in front of the rest of the class. Student A is to describe Student B giving only "facts" that A can observe. If the students already know each other well, A may try to offer a judgment ("B is wearing a funny-looking red cap"). Such judgmental statements are to be ruled out of order. Then A is asked to draw some conclusions about B based on his or her observations. The class can comment on the probable validity of A's conclusions, and B can confirm or deny them. (Assumptions are important here. A will probably assume that B is wearing his or her own clothes, for example; but perhaps B has borrowed the red cap from a roommate.

The robber. The following story and list of statements are given to the students. They are instructed to mark each statement as true, false, or questionable (not definitely true or false) on the basis of the statements in the story. It is assumed that the incidents in the story are correctly reported. Students may work on this individually or in small groups. When the task is completed the whole class goes over the answers, deciding which are correct. (In addition to provoking discussion of the differences between fact and inference, this exercise illustrates the necessity of careful reading.)

> The businessman had just turned off the lights in the store when a man appeared and demanded money. The owner opened the cash register. The contents of the cash register were scooped up, and the man sped away. A member of the police force was notified promptly.

1. A man appeared after the owner had turned off his store lights.
2. The robber was a man.
3. The man who appeared did not demand money.
4. The man who opened the cash register was the owner.
5. The store owner scooped up the contents of the cash register and ran away.
6. Someone opened a cash register.
7. After the man who demanded money scooped up the contents of the cash register, he ran away.
8. While the cash register contained money, the story does not state how much.
9. The robber demanded money of the owner.
10. The robber opened the cash register.
11. After the store lights were turned off, a man appeared.
12. The robber did not take the money with him.
13. The robber did not demand money of the owner.
14. The owner opened the cash register.
15. The age of the store owner was not revealed in the story.

Statement of Fact	*Statement of Inference*
Made after observation or experience.	Made anytime—before, during or after observation.
Confined to what one observes; cannot be made about the future.	Goes beyond what one observes; may concern the past, the present, or the future.
Limited number possible.	Unlimited number possible.
High probability (not certainty—perception may be faulty).	Represents some degree of probability.
Brings people together; furthers agreement.	Creates distance between people; likely to cause disagreement.

16. Taking the contents of the cash register with him, the man ran out of the store.
17. The story concerns a series of events in which only three persons are referred to: the owner of the store, a man who demanded money, and a member of the police force.
18. The following events were included in the story: someone demanded money, a cash register was opened, its contents were scooped up, and a man dashed out of the store.

Market basket game. Students are asked to write a paragraph or two describing a shopper, based on the contents of his or her grocery cart. The paragraphs are then discussed in class, considering the degree of probability of the various inferences.

> The cart contains the following items: six TV dinners, two bags of potato chips, two bottles of cream soda, one six-pack of beer, three boxes of cookies, two loaves of bread, one large jar of peanut butter, six candy bars, three frozen pies, two cans of pork and beans, one frozen salad, one quart of ice cream, five cans of chow mein, one tin of aspirin, one package of sanitary napkins, six cans of diet cola, and one copy of *TV Guide*.

Writing about personal experience. Think of a time when you made an incorrect inference. What caused your mistake? Were you misinformed? Were your perceptions faulty? Did you operate on a false assumption? Describe what happened. What were the consequences of your mistake? Could it have been avoided? How did the situation turn out?

Writing an interpretive report. Write a paper of about two pages in which you report observations you have made about some aspect of campus life and infer from them some general conclusions concerning the behavior patterns of the people you observed. As you can see, this is basically a sociological report; you are to look at your world (or at least a small bit of it) and make some general statements about what you see.

You need, of course, to pick a narrow, well-defined thesis around which to organize the paper; select one that also has an argumentative edge. You don't have to limit yourself to one physical area on campus; you might find that different parts of campus can be used to support one thesis. For example, in arguing that many students are politically apathetic, you could talk about what reactions students have to various television news stories, how people react to leafleteers handing out statements on the repression of Jews in the U.S.S.R., and whether students seem interested in the literature displayed by the Young Socialist Alliance in the Student Union.

Your thesis and paragraph topic ideas will be inferences and generalizations about the behavior on campus. (Here are some sample topics: Drug abuse is no longer a major problem on campus. Students here tend to be more extroverted and friendly than introverted and cold. Sexual equality is becoming a reality on this campus.) However, the paper must ultimately be based on observation. We strongly urge you to pick a few locations on campus where you can stay and take notes on what people are doing. For instance, you might spend twenty minutes noticing what people buy at a campus store and draw some inferences based on what you see.

Symposium. Students work in groups to prepare symposiums on current developments in some area of modern life. Each group will choose an area and divide it so that each member is responsible for some aspect of the general topic. For example, groups could discuss what current developments in one of the following areas have possible significance for the future: changes in family organization; new religions; educational innovations; changes in population patterns; space exploration; computer technology; sports technology;

genetic engineering; electronic communication; transportation; entertainment. Each group would then present its findings to the class in a symposium format.

Students could also be asked to write future scenarios based on the information developed in the symposiums. They may describe, dramatize, predict, or even argue, proposing that certain developments should be promoted or discouraged.

Unit Four. Patterns of Analysis: Problem-Solution

Objectives:

1. Students should become familiar with the reflective-thinking pattern.
2. Students should learn to explore alternative solutions to campus or local problems.
3. Students should learn to frame questions for discussion.
4. Students should learn to develop an agenda for group discussion.
5. Students should develop group discussion skills.
6. Students should learn to apply data from a variety of sources to the solution of a problem.
7. Students should evaluate group discussion as a classroom activity, a way of processing information.
8. Students should evaluate group discussion as a problem-solving method.

One major purpose of this unit is to introduce students to the reflective-thinking pattern used in problem-solving discussion. The steps in the process, which appear under many different labels and vary from source to source, can be described as follows:

1. Defining and limiting the problem
2. Analyzing the problem (causes, extent, manifestations, etc.)
3. Listing possible solutions
4. Evaluating suggested solutions
5. Testing a solution

These steps provide a framework for the remainder of the course. The emphasis in group problem solving is on the first three steps: defining or stating the problem, finding and sharing information, and generating suggestions for a solution. Discussion is appropriate when the participants are not committed to a point of view or a plan of action. This principle is reflected in the nature of the discussion question, which is open-ended rather than two-sided ("What can be done about X?" rather than "Should this be done about X?"). The purpose of group discussion is inquiry; debate and persuasion are concerned with advocacy.[15] Because of its nature, problem-solving discussion is not primarily an audience activity like the symposium and the panel discussion.

Activities

Activities and exercises that can be used to illustrate the steps in directed thinking and to enable students to practice discussion skills range from highly structured games and problems (in which there are "correct" solutions) to "real-life" situations (in which solutions depend on the values and assumptions of the group). One example of the former is the "Horse-Trading Problem" described below.[16] More complex problems involving scientific knowledge are "The Desert Survival Problem" and "Lost on the Moon," both of which require participants to rank-order a list of items according to their importance for survival.[17] These types of problems can be used to compare the effectiveness of individual problem-solving with that of group problem-solving (groups almost invariably do better) and to illustrate group dynamics: who are the leaders, who is listened to, and how often is it the person with the right answers. The second type of activity, problems with no correct answers, includes fictional stories such as the "Island" exercise (described in Unit 1), and actual cases of organizational, political, business, or legal problems.[18] One activity that can be built into this type of discussion is role playing, an important skill in the development of verbal abilities.[19]

The activities listed below begin with a highly structured game and end with discussions on topics chosen and researched by the students.

The horse-trading problem. Read the following to the class: "The process of communication has often been compared to 'horse trading.' Listen carefully. Then I will ask you to come up with the answer. Okay, here is the problem:

> A man buys a horse for $50.
> He sells the horse for $60.
> He buys the horse again for $70.
> He sells the horse again for $80.
> How much profit does he make?"

Let the class members call out answers. Then ask if there are any other answers. Divide the class into groups

corresponding to their answers. Give each group a number and direct them to meet in different parts of the room as soon as you give the signal.

Instruct them as follows: They are to discuss the basis for their answer and arrive at arguments to refute other answers. If members change their minds, they can join another group or form a new group. Each group has five minutes to select a representative and help supply him or her with arguments; if they are dissatisfied with their representative, they can call for a four-minute recess and select a new one.

Give the signal for them to meet in groups. After five minutes call the representatives to the front. Tell those who are not participating to say nothing while arguments are being heard. Tell them again that they may switch groups or call for a recess. Tell representatives to argue their positions and refute other positions, without using paper and pencil, money, or other visual aids.

Questions that may arise are: "Can you give further information on the problem?" Answer: No. "Can we use notes in defending answers?" Yes, as long as you do not use visual aids.

(The solution to the problem is $20.)

Role playing. Role-playing exercises help students to understand that there is a variety of perspectives on any topic and to become aware of the factors that influence individual perspective (e.g., age, sex, occupation, political and religious affiliation). Select a discussion question and assign roles to group participants. A sample problem for discussion might be "How can vandalism on campus be decreased?" Discussants could include a campus security guard, an undergraduate student, a college administrator, a faculty member, and a residence hall staff member.

Group problem solving. Students working in groups of four to six choose some campus or local community problem to investigate. Each group chooses a topic and frames a question, gathers information (using both the library and interviews with those involved with the problem), plans an agenda, and conducts a discussion during a class meeting. The discussions are not to be audience presentations. The instructor will review the group's statement of the question and their agenda. Once they have investigated the problem and are ready for the discussion, several groups can hold their discussions simultaneously. (If the class is divided into four groups, two can discuss and the remaining two can act as observers, using one of the observation forms given in the next chapter. Then the process can be reversed.)

Several writing assignments can be based on these discussions:

Each member of the group writes a report to those with power to solve the problem discussed, analyzing the problem, recommending a solution, or evaluating suggested solutions.

Observers write an essay evaluation of the discussion they observed, using the evaluation form in the next chapter.

Students examine orally or in writing examples of task and maintenance functions performed by various members of the group, evaluating how well those functions were fulfilled: e.g., information giving, information seeking, starting, direction giving, summarizing, testing solutions for practicality, evaluating progress of the discussion (task functions); encouraging participation, harmonizing, building trust, solving interpersonal problems (maintenance functions).

Students prepare a report for the instructor evaluating discussion as a class activity and as a problem-solving method. The following questions can be used:

> What, if anything, did you learn about the topic of your discussion as a result of participation in the group? Did you change or modify your original opinions on the question? Explain.
>
> What, if anything, did you learn about finding information? About using information to solve a problem?
>
> What, if anything, did you learn about evaluating information? Did the group have adequate information? Were any sources questioned in the discussion?
>
> What, if anything, did you learn about group communication *process*? Explain.
>
> Do you see any possible future use you might have for the problem-solution analytical scheme used in group discussion?
>
> How do you feel about working in a group? Would you like to do it in other courses?
>
> Write a page or so evaluating your own group. Explain what you think were its strengths and weaknesses.

Unit Five. Patterns of Argument: Logical Proofs

Objectives:

1. Students should use the reflective-thinking pattern as a method of analyzing a controversial topic and discovering relevant issues.
2. Students should be able to evaluate issues and make the best possible case for a proposition.
3. Students should become aware of common logical fallacies.
4. Students should learn standard tests of evidence.

5. Students should learn how to frame a debate proposition and distinguish among questions of policy, fact, and value.
6. Students should develop an understanding of argument as process.
7. Students should be able to analyze an argument, recognizing data, claim, and warrant (terminology of the Toulmin model).

Toulmin Model

As Kneupper observed recently: "Because of its complexity, argument is probably the most difficult form of discourse to teach."[20] One often finds in texts a discussion of what students should *not* do in an argument (such as a discussion of fallacies, or perhaps the syllogism). Often what is not taught is the notion of *argument as process*, as it is likely to occur in actual communicative contexts, such as advertisements and everyday conversation. There, syllogisms *as* syllogisms are rarely found. Moreover, in a syllogism such as

All men are mortal
Socrates is a man
∴Socrates is mortal,

once you have accepted the premise "All men are mortal," you have accepted the conclusion "Socrates is mortal"; there's not much mystery or much fun in it. But by using the model of argument set forth by Stephen Toulmin in *The Uses of Argument*,[21] students can start with a piece of evidence and find out that there are many ways to get from evidence to a claim, or start with a claim and find out that they can go about supporting it through a number of routes. Students find this more interesting, more intellectually demanding, and more like argument in "real" conversations than syllogisms. Because the Toulmin model focuses both on the notion of argument as process and on developing critical capability to examine argument in "real life" discourse, it has a double utility. In what follows, we will briefly outline the Toulmin model and suggest a variety of ways in which you can use it.

The basic Toulmin model has three parts, as illustrated in Figure 4. Argument consists of movement from Data via Warrant to Claim. The Warrant reveals *how* you get from data to claim. In many ways, the notion of Warrant is at the heart of this approach to argument: it not only allows audiences to *examine* the leap from data to claim, it reminds us all that there are many ways we can make such leaps. Warrants can be divided into three types: authoritative, motivational, and substantive. Let us examine each of these kinds of warrants by looking at examples (some of them from actual advertisements).

Fig. 4. Toulmin model of argument

An *authoritative warrant* states or implies that the person who presents the data "knows what she or he is talking about," that she or he is worthy of belief.

Data: A picture of Wilma Rudolph running with two children. Opposite page shows a list of Wilma's questions and the Equitable insurance company's answers.

Claim: "The Equitable offers you a sporting challenge." It's worth buying insurance from them.

Warrant: Wilma Rudolph—"only American woman ever to win 3 Gold Medals in one year of Olympics competition"—knows what she's talking about.

Data: Two pictures: one of a fierce-looking football player in full gear, another of the same man, relaxed, dressed in street clothes, holding a stamp album. Copy: "He's Dave Rowe, defensive tackle with the Oakland Raiders. Six foot eight. 280 pounds. And a real pro."

Claim (implicit): Collecting stamps is manly; (explicit): collecting stamps is fun.

Warrant: Dave certainly can't be stereotyped as a "sissy," and he collects stamps.

Data: "Under his Yves St. Laurent jacket, his Cardin tie, his Dior shirt, Vitas Gerulaitis wears Brut."

Claim (implicit): You will be "with it" if you buy Brut.

Warrant (implicit): Vitas Gerulaitis, the mod, handsome tennis pro with a reputation as a swinger, knows how to be attractive.

Data: "I think my Sunstream solar water heating system is a great investment," says Annie L. Crawford. Below is a half-page picture of a middle-aged, serious-looking woman.

Claim: The Sunstream solar water heating system is a good investment.

Warrant: An average homeowner should know a good investment.

Or, consider the advertisements that choose *not* to use famous personalities.

Data: The Fuel Saver Thermostat works automatically to lower temperature at night, and raise it just before you wake. If you use it, you can "tear 9 to 30 percent off your heating bill." Picture of person tearing corner off heating bill.

Claim: A Honeywell Fuel Saver Thermostat is a good thing to have.

Warrant (implicit): Saving money is a good thing, especially if it's easy.

A *motivational warrant* states or implies a value that motivates us to accept the claim.

Data: Full-page picture of a bottle of liquor. A "Season's Greetings" gift card that says, "Because you always go first class."

Claim (implicit): You should drink this brand of liquor.

Warrant (implicit): Going "first class" is desirable.

Data: Picture of a young man washing an economy car. Caption: "There are more expensive cars we insure. But none more important."

Claim: Travelers is a good insurance company.

Warrant (implicit): It's important to know that your insurance company cares about you even if you're just a small customer.

The third kind or warrant, the *substantive warrant*, states or implies a particular relationship between the evidence and the claim. There are several kinds of substantive warrants, including warrants based on cause and effect, warrants based on part-whole relationships, and warrants based on similarity relationships such as analogies and parallel cases.

Data: By improving lighting facilities in the downtown area, City A cut its crime rate by 15 percent.

Claim: If adopted in City B, this program would effectively reduce the crime rate there.

Warrant: Since City A and City B are alike in essential respects, what is true in City A will be true in City B.

Data: Between 1960 and 1970 the federal government spent $5-7 billion more than it collected in taxes.

Claim: As a result, the cost of living went up 25 percent in this country.

Warrant (implicit): When government expenditures exceed government tax revenues, the cost of living rises.

Data: Last year, the average profit margin for all manufacturing companies was 5.4 percent; the average for the oil industry, 4.6 percent.

Claim: Oil company profits were not excessively high.

Warrant: Any profit margin that falls below that for all manufacturing companies is not excessively high.

Data: Both consumer credit and unemployment have been rising rapidly.

Claim: More double-digit inflation is practically guaranteed.

Warrant: Rising consumer credit and unemployment tend to drive up wholesale prices, causing high inflation.

In sum: An authoritative warrant asserts or implies a relationship between the advice offered (become a stamp collector; buy Brand X) and what the audience believe about the credibility of the person offering the advice. A motivational warrant asserts or implies a relationship between the claim and something the audience values (going "first class," saving money). A substantive warrant characterizes relationships between/among facts; for instance, a substantive warrant may characterize one fact as the cause of another, or it may characterize one fact as an example.

Obviously, in real life arguments are not laid out so neatly. Thus, the teacher should have students find arguments in a variety of places: for example, the debate format such as the Nixon-Kennedy or the Carter-Ford debates, debates in local and state elections, or debates in newspapers; single speeches and papers of students or others; advertisements they read and hear; conversations around them; editorials, signed newspaper columns, and letters to the editor. In these settings claims sometimes come before data, etc.

Just as obviously, all the parts of an argument are not always stated. Sometimes, for example, speakers assume that the audience already knows the evidence and decide that it is not necessary to include it. It is useful to remind students that whether all the parts are actually included in a paper or speech, it makes abundant good sense for the speaker/writer to know them, for surely someone in the audience may. (Refer to the bibliography for texts that elaborate on the Toulmin model and its uses.)

Activities

The following activities are designed to improve students' ability to analyze and construct arguments.

Analysis of advertisements. Have students select three or four advertisements for the same product (e.g., automobiles, pianos, life insurance) and compare

the types of data used; whether warrants are stated or implied; whether the warrants are substantive, motivational, or authoritative; and what kinds of claims are made.

Toulmin exercise. Label the type of reasoning used in each example. Identify an appropriate phrase for each warrant.[22]

DATA: The price of steel has gone up.
CLAIM: Therefore the price of products made from steel will probably go up.
What is the WARRANT?

DATA: Communist China keeps a large number of troops under arms.
CLAIM: China is therefore demonstrating aggressive behavior.
What is the WARRANT?

DATA: Leaders of India, Sweden, Japan, East Germany, and Ghana oppose the United States position on further disarmament.
CLAIM: Therefore, a majority of world leaders probably opposes the United States position on further disarmament.
What is the WARRANT?

DATA: By instituting stricter driver's license tests and periodic retests, Alabama cut its automobile accident rate by 20 percent.
CLAIM: Massachusetts should institute a similar program.
What is the WARRANT?

DATA: The underdeveloped nations of the world have a more rapidly rising birth rate than the developed nations.
CLAIM: The United States should provide these nations with birth control information that will help them control their population.
What is the WARRANT?

DATA: Currently in the United States, medical care is delivered to those individuals who can afford the cost.
CLAIM: Most people will therefore forego needed medical care.
What is the WARRANT?

Impromptu debates. During the class period preceding the impromptu debates, the class will decide on two issues that interest them. Examples of propositions are: pornographic movies should not be shown on campus; we should refuse to send food to other countries (such as India) where there is little hope of controlling population and thus alleviating famine; smoking should be prohibited in all public enclosures.

Class should be divided into four groups, according to whether they are for or against either of the two questions chosen. Their assignment is to think of as many arguments as they can for their side of the chosen question. At the beginning of the next class, the four groups will meet and each will choose a spokesperson to present the group's arguments. The spokespersons will meet each other in two one-on-one debates. Each speaker will have three minutes to present her or his group's case.

Argument analysis. Have students present short oral or written reports in which they either analyze and evaluate a piece of argumentative prose (an essay or a printed speech) using a Toulminian approach or discuss from a Toulminian point of view.

Debate. Students working in groups of two or four prepare debates on topics chosen by the class.

A handout for students explaining debate begins on p. 20. The major goal of the debate assignment is not to familiarize students with a particular format, for in the future they may never use that format again; emphasis throughout this assignment should be on skills development. While many of our students may never again debate in a format such as the one described in the handout, many will be called upon to present their points of view, to have those points of view carefully examined in an oral setting, and to consider alternative proposals. Thus they need to become accustomed to analyzing all sides of a proposition in order to determine what the issues are.

Although debate has been criticized as too highly structured and competitive, with too much emphasis on strategy and "winning," we feel that these criticisms are the result of abuses in tournament competition that can easily be eliminated in the classroom. There, debate can be an effective way to give students practice in analyzing controversial questions, finding and refuting arguments, and presenting their positions orally. Testing their arguments in the debate situation, defining issues, judging the relative significance of various claims, and questioning evidence are excellent preparation for writing an argumentative essay. One suggestion for a writing assignment is given on p. 22 in "Analysis of Stock Issues." Debate is effective for several reasons: it is exciting and intellectually stimulating, and students enjoy participating; it is challenging in that it requires students to be prepared to defend their arguments; it illustrates more vividly than any other activity that there are at least two sides to every issue and that the same factual evidence can often be used on both; and students enjoy watching debates.

The format outlined in the handout that follows is not the only possibility.[23] Teacher and students can design alternatives, keeping in mind that the two sides should have equal time and that the affirmative, because they bear the burden of proof, should have the last word.

DEBATE

Introduction: The problem-solution analysis provides a means to inquire into a topic. The last step in that process is a test of the chosen solution. Once a policy is chosen, one way to test it (short of enacting it in the "real world") is to debate it to see how well your position stands up to an intellectual attack. At the end of this unit you should be able to do the following: analyze a controversial topic and discover relevant issues; evaluate issues in order to make the best possible case for a proposition; develop arguments to support your position; evaluate arguments used by others; present arguments effectively, both orally and in writing; refute arguments effectively.

Debate Proposition: While a discussion question is multi-sided (what can be done about the problem?), a debate proposition is a statement affirming that a particular action should be taken. (Example: Nuclear power should be abandoned as a source of energy.) The proposition is worded so that those who argue in favor of it (affirmative) are arguing for a change and those who argue against it (negative) are upholding the status quo. Thus the affirmative team is said to have the burden of proof. The affirmative is also responsible for defining terms in the proposition.

Stock Issues: The main issues in a debate arise naturally from the five-step problem-solution analysis. On the basis of definition and description of a problem, the affirmative team argues that there is need for a change. They urge the listeners to accept their proposed solution, a plan which they describe in some detail. They argue that their plan, if adopted, would have advantages that outweigh any disadvantages it might have. The following is an example of how a proposition might be broken down into these stock issues:

Proposition: The U.S. should stop all construction of nuclear power plants. The affirmative might argue thus:

> Need: The danger of pollution from accidents, leakage, and sabotage at nuclear plants is great.
>
> Plan: Federal legislation providing for immediate cessation of nuclear plant construction and phasing out of existing nuclear plants should be enacted.
>
> Advantages: Protecting our environment and protecting future generations from the risk of nuclear pollution is more important than any short-range economic advantage that might be gained from developing nuclear energy.

The negative may answer the affirmative in a number of ways:

> They may debate every issue: "The risk of nuclear accidents, etc., is not as great as the affirmative claims (there is no need for change); dismantling power plants already built would cost the utilities millions of dollars that consumers would have to pay (plan is impractical); we must have power now rather than waiting for the development of alternative sources such as solar energy (disadvantages of plan are too great)."

They may waive one issue: "Yes, we agree there is a problem, but your plan won't solve it."

They may propose a counterplan: "Things are bad, all right, but I have a better idea for improving them than yours." (Note: In choosing to defend a counterplan, the negative takes on part of the burden of proof.)

Organization of Debate: We will work with two-person teams, one team on the affirmative and one on the negative. Each person has a five-minute constructive speech:

1st Affirmative	5 minutes
1st Negative	5 minutes
2nd Affirmative	5 minutes
2nd Negative	5 minutes

Each person also has a three-minute rebuttal speech, during which they attempt to refute the opposing team's arguments. No new arguments may be raised in rebuttal speeches. Notice that the rebuttals are presented in reverse order from the constructive speeches.

1st Negative	3 minutes
1st Affirmative	3 minutes
2nd Negative	3 minutes
2nd Affirmative	3 minutes

The following are questions you might consider as you listen to debates:

1. How important is definition of terms in the debate? Does it become an issue?

2. Does the negative side attack the affirmative on every point or does the debate narrow to one or two issues?

3. Do the speakers base their arguments on any generally accepted principles or values, such as justice, individual freedom, or constitutional guarantees?

4. Do you find examples of causal argument, argument from example, or argument from analogy?

5. How important is evidence in the debate? Do the speakers question the credibility of each other's sources?

6. What comments would you make on the speakers' oral presentation (delivery)?

7. Which side do you think won, and why?

Analysis of stock issues. One assignment you may want to make prior to the debate is to have class members write a paper analyzing the "stock issues" of the debate topic they are preparing. A sample analysis of a proposition of policy is given below:[24]

Proposition: Capital punishment should be mandatory for persons who kidnap and kill the victim, sell narcotics to juveniles, hijack an airplane, or kill a prison guard.

For	Against
1. These are serious crimes which should be deterred.	Capital punishment doesn't deter crime.
2. The penalty must be mandatory because parole is too easy to get.	Eliminates the notion of rehabilitation.
3. An eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth.	This is worn out.
4. Not if it is mandatory.	4. Capital punishment discriminates against the poor and minorities.
Not as much as selling narcotics to juveniles and other terrible crimes.	5. Legalized murder saps the moral fiber of the country.
6. It would be cheaper than keeping such killers.	That's a barbarian attitude, putting money over human beings.
7. Courts should be speeded up; they waste too much time.	There would be longer trials and appeals in a case concerning the death sentence.
No, they aren't. That's a chance we have to take. People who engage in such crimes aren't human beings.	8. Innocent people are put to death.

Editorial analysis. Write an article for the editorial page of the student newspaper analyzing your debate proposition. Remember that the readers have no more knowledge of the subject than you did before you began your research. Consider the following questions:

What is the significance of the topic? Why should readers be interested and informed? (Why did *you* choose it?)

What are the important issues to be considered in discussing the proposition?

What are the strongest claims (arguments) on each side of the question? What evidence supports them?

Which side do you support and why?

Unit Six. Patterns of Persuasion: Motivational Proofs

Objectives:

1. Students should develop a definition of persuasion.
2. Students should understand the importance of audience analysis in preparing persuasive appeals.
3. Students should become aware of ways in which motivational appeals are used to lead and mislead audiences.
4. Students should become aware of the ethical issues involved in persuasion.

5. Students should become aware of the purpose and effect of well planned introductions and conclusions.
6. Students should know how to use a variety of methods for introducing and concluding persuasive appeals.
7. Students should understand the concept of credibility.
8. In a final speech and a paper analyzing the audience, students should demonstrate the following abilities: utilizing audience beliefs and values in planning persuasive appeals; applying knowledge of common needs and motives in planning persuasive appeals; planning an effective introduction and conclusion; constructing logical arguments and supporting them with sound evidence.

The relationship between Unit 5 and Unit 6 is an especially close one. They both focus on offering proof for what we say. In Unit 5, emphasis was on what is frequently called "logical proof"; in Unit 6, emphasis is on "motivational proof." Actually, the types of proof are not so neatly separated. When we ask others to listen to us, in either formal or informal discourse, we are in effect saying:[25]

> Listen to me because I am trustworthy.
>
> Listen to me because I use certain substantive evidence and arguments.
>
> Listen to me because, as a human being, I share certain motives, emotions, and expectations with you.

A "proof" of whatever variety (ethical, substantive, motivational) is something we offer to secure belief, persuade others to have faith in us.

Persuasion

This final unit in the course continues to stress the role of the audience in the communication model. Students are asked to examine more carefully the process of persuasion. For some, the term "persuasion" is tainted with overtones of deceit, manipulation, and trickery. In our opinion, such a view is very limited. We prefer, rather, to view persuasion as a means through which identification occurs between speaker and audience; the speaker's responsibility is to evoke in the audience "a sense of collaboration."[26]

To evoke such a "sense of collaboration," the speaker needs to have some understanding of audience motives and values. One of the most commonly cited classifications of human needs is the one below, outlined by Abraham Maslow. As Maslow points out, it proceeds from the most basic needs to more complex aspirations.[27]

1. Physiological needs (food, water, sex, etc.)
2. Safety needs (tangible measures of well being; these may range from a parent's support of a child to various kinds of insurance—medical or unemployment)
3. Love and belongingness needs
4. Esteem needs
5. Self-actualization, self-fulfillment needs

Moving beyond these basic general characteristics of audiences, speakers must also analyze particular features of a given audience and situation. Age, sex, time, place, concurrent events, everything that affects attitudes should be considered in the process of adapting communication to audience and situation.

Students should also become aware of the responsibility they undertake in the role of persuader. As Karl R. Wallace has reminded us, *all* "acts of communication entail morality."[28] He lists what he terms "the four moralities" of communication:

1. The duty of search and inquiry.
2. The allegiance to accuracy, fairness, and justice in the selection and treatment of ideas and arguments.
3. The willingness to submit private motivation to public scrutiny.
4. The toleration of dissent.[29]

Whether discussion proceeds from this list or from one generated by the students themselves, it is important for them to understand that "a communication, be it short or long, reveals a series of choices" for both speaker and listener and that "choices are governed by intentions and are justified by values."[30]

Activities

The following activity is one of many that can help students explore choices involving values.

Kidney machine.[31] In this exercise students will be exploring choices involving values, continuing their study of problem solving in groups, and examining the impact of individual values and attitudes on group decision making. The exercise takes approximately fifty to sixty minutes.

Divide the class into groups of five to seven. Give each group a copy of the following exercise:

> Some hospitals have citizen groups that advise them on decisions concerning who shall have priority use of life-sustaining equipment such as a kidney machine.

Suppose you were serving on such a citizen committee. A place becomes available at the kidney machine. Doctors present you with the biographical sketches of five candidates for that place. They pose this question: Who should be allowed to have priority use of the kidney machine?

Biographical sketches of those to be considered:

Alfred: White, male, American, age 42. Married for twenty-one years. Two children (boy 18, girl 15), both high school students. Research physicist at University medical school, working on cancer immunization project. Current publications indicate that he is on the verge of a significant medical discovery.

On the health service staff of local university, member of county medical society and Rotary International, and Boy Scout leader for ten years.

Bill: Black, male, American, age 27. Married for five years. One child (girl, 3), wife six months pregnant. Currently employed as an auto mechanic in local car dealership.

Attending night school and taking courses in automatic-transmission rebuilding. No community service activities listed. Plans to open auto-transmission repair shop upon completion of trade school course.

Cora: White, female, American, age 30. Married for eleven years. Five children (boy 10, boy 8, girl 7, girl 5, girl 4 months). Husband self-employed (owns and operates tavern and short-order restaurant). High school graduate. Never employed.

Couple has just purchased home in local suburbs, and Cora is planning the interior to determine whether she has the talent to return to school for courses in interior decoration. Member of several religious organizations.

David: White, male, American, age 19. Single, but recently announced engagement and plans to marry this summer. Presently a sophomore at large eastern university, majoring in philosophy and literature. Eventually hopes to earn Ph.D. and become a college professor.

Member of several campus political organizations, an outspoken critic of the college administration, was once suspended briefly for "agitation." Has had poetry published in various literary magazines around the New York area. Father is self-employed (owns men's haberdashery), mother is deceased. Has two younger sisters ages 15 and 11.

Edna: White, female, American, age 34. Single, presently employed as an executive secretary in large manufacturing company, where she has worked since graduation from business college. Member of local choral society; was alto soloist in Christmas production of Handel's *Messiah*. Has been very active in several church and charitable groups.

The following activities involve the analysis and use of motivational appeals in writing and speaking.

The significance of values and beliefs. Students are asked to write a paper explaining a belief or value they feel strongly about. Have they always felt the way they do now? If not, do they remember when and how they came to accept their belief or value? Do their parents and/or friends share their belief? Does the belief affect their responses to issues that confront them in their daily lives? How does the belief affect their behavior? Can they foresee any event or experience that might change their belief?

Drawing inferences about audience values. Select a persuasive speech that has been presented in a public forum (on campus, or perhaps one appearing in *Vital Speeches*). What can you tell about the audience from the speech itself? What values does the speaker seem to be appealing to? What appear to be the chief persuasive strategies used to appeal to that audience?

Designing a persuasive campaign. You have become the chairperson of the campus's Annual Blood Donation Drive. Plan a campus-wide persuasive campaign (including a ten-minute speech) to get attention and mobilize support. You may want to prepare campus radio spots, newspaper copy, announcements to be placed on dormitory bulletin boards, etc. What motives and values will you appeal most directly to?

Advertising analysis. Assign each student a specific product and have him or her make a survey and evaluation of the advertising of that product. The survey should include magazines, newspapers, TV, radio, and billboards. The evaluation should consider the nature of the audience(s) toward whom the advertising is directed, the kinds of motivational appeals that are used, and the use of language for emotive effect. The students' findings can be presented orally or in writing.

Persuasion experience. "Persuasion is a process of inducing change in behavior, beliefs, and attitudes."[32] The components of a persuasive "movement" are attention, perception, knowledge and argument, belief and attitude and action. Students should think of a time when they were persuaded and write a paper describing how the problem came to their attention, what sources of information they had concerning it, what information and argument they paid attention to, and how the change in attitude affected them.

Persuasive speaking assignment. Students give a final 7-10 minute persuasive speech. In preparation, they design questionnaires or plan interviews that will help them analyze the class as an audience: awareness, attitudes, beliefs, etc. As an alternative students may choose to give their final speech to an audience other than the class. They must then describe their chosen audience in sufficient detail so that the class can play the role of that audience.

Notes

1. This exercise is adapted from Charles J. Stewart, *Teaching Interviewing for Career Preparation* (Urbana, Ill.: ERIC/RCS and SCA, 1976), pp. 10-11.

2. This exercise is based on one found in Brent D. Ruben and Richard W. Budd, *Human Communication Handbook: Simulations and Games* Vol. I. (Rochelle Park, N.J.: Hayden, 1975), pp. 22-23.

3. For example, see John W. Keltner, *Elements of Interpersonal Communication* (Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1973), pp. 15-19.

4. *Ibid.*, p. 101.

5. (Urbana Ill.: ERIC/RCS and NCTE, 1976), pp. 28-31. A description of peer group discussion of student writing can also be found in Kenneth A. Bruffee, "Collaborative Learning: Some Practical Models," *College English* 34 (February 1973), pp. 634-43.

6. The use of this response sheet was described by Frank O'Hare in a workshop at the University of Detroit, June 16, 1977.

7. This exercise is from Kathleen S. Verderber and Rudolph E. Verderber, *Inter-Act* (Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1977), pp. 64-65.

8. Story from Karen O. Krupar, *Communication Games* (New York: Free Press, 1973), p. 77.

9. For [illegible]ller treatment than we are able to offer see Beverly Wakefield, *Perception and Communication* (Urbana, Ill.: ERIC/RCS and SCA, 1976).

10. *Styles and Structures* (New York: Norton, 1974).

11. *Ibid.* See pp. 50-51 for an example of such an exercise.

12. *Boston Globe*, 3 September 1978.

13. Kenneth G. Johnson et al. *Nothin' Never Happens*, Student's Edition (Beverly Hills, Calif.: Glencoe, 1974).

14. Adapted from Gerald M. Messner and Nancy Messner, *Patterns of Thinking*, 2nd ed. (Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1974), pp. 12-13.

15. For an overview of this move from inquiry to advocacy, see Waldo W. Braden and Ernest Brandenburg, *Oral Decision-Making: Principles of Discussion and Debate* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955).

16. This exercise is taken from Kim Giffin and Bobby R. Patton, *Instructor's Manual to Accompany Fundamentals of Interpersonal Communication* (New York: Harper and Row, 1971), pp. 1-2.

17. "The Desert Survival Problem" was developed by J. Clayton Lafferty, Patrick M. Eady, and John M. Elmers in consultation with Alonzo Pond for Experimental Learning Methods, Plymouth, Michigan, 1973. "Lost on the Moon" appeared in *Psychology Today* 5 November 1971, p. 53.

18. Douglas Ehninger, *Influence, Belief and Argument: An Introduction to Responsible Persuasion* (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman, 1974) is a good source of "real life" cases.

19. James Moffett, *Teaching the Universe of Discourse* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin 1968), pp. 89-91.

20. Charles Kneupper, "Teaching Argument: An Introduction to the Toulmin Model," *College Composition and Communication* 29 (October 1978), pp. 237-41.

21. (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1958).

22. This exercise was provided to us by Nicholas Burnett.

23. Owen Peterson, "Forum Debating," *Speech Teacher* 14 (November 1965), pp. 286-290.

24. Richard Rieke and Malcolm O. Sillars, *Argumentation and the Decision Making Process* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1975), p. 58.

25. Jane Blankenship, *Public Speech: A Rhetorical Perspective* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972), pp. 129-130.

26. Hugh Duncan, *Communication and Social Order* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1968), p. 170.

27. Abraham H. Maslow, *Motivation and Personality* (New York: Harper and Row, 1954).

28. Karl R. Wallace, "For the Well Being of the Profession," *Spectra* 8 (June 1972), p. 4.

29. Karl R. Wallace, "An Ethical Basis of Communication," *Speech Teacher* 4 (January 1955), pp. 1-9.

30. Wallace, "For the Well Being of the Profession," p. 4.

31. This exercise is adapted from J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones, eds., *The 1974 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators* (La Jolla, Calif.: University Associates, 1974), pp. 78-83.

32. John Keltner, *Elements of Interpersonal Communication* (Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth, 1973), p. 196.

3 Evaluation Criteria for Students

During the semester you will need to be as clear about the criteria for evaluating oral performance as you are about those for evaluating written assignments. Because of the audience orientation of oral activity, it is particularly important to have students participate in the evaluation process; so you will want to assign student evaluators for each formal presentation. (It is preferable to have more than one evaluator, to allow for perceptual differences within the class.) Because of the less permanent nature of speech (unless it is preserved on tape), it is important to write and read the critiques soon after the activity. You may or may not want the evaluators' names to be on the evaluations when they are given to the speaker. If not, the evaluator's name can be signed in the lower right hand corner of the evaluation sheet and clipped off before the evaluation is returned to the speaker.

It is also important for the teacher to read student evaluations to observe how well class members are developing as critics. When possible, we also give student critics our notes on their comments, especially when some item of importance is missed by the student.

The advantages of the multiple critic procedure include: increasing awareness of audience feedback; helping students (both speakers and critics) understand that there are varying reactions to what is said because of differences in perceptions, attitudes, interests, and the like; and offering a wider range of help and support to student communicators than the teacher alone can provide. These advantages rest on two assumptions: (a) that developing critical skills may help students improve other performance skills, and (b) that *all* class members are responsible for helping each other develop their communication skills.

Below you will find several sample evaluation sheets for group discussions, formal speeches, and debates. They will have to be adapted to suit your own assignments and emphases, and more important, the level of student skills development.

Discussion. Since the focus of group discussion is on group interaction rather than individual performance, there is a need to develop ways of evaluating whole groups as their skills in group participation improve. Therefore, we have included separate evaluation sheets for groups (Evaluation Sheet 1) and for individual group members (Evaluation Sheet 2). In conducting evaluation, you may want to use a "fishbowl" seating arrangement where the discussants sit in an inner circle and the rest of the class in an outer circle.

Group members themselves should be encouraged to fill out evaluation sheets in order to compare their perceptions with those of class members who are "overhearing" the discussion. When possible, taping the discussion is useful because then group participants can later hear what took place and critique themselves more accurately and fully.

Formal speeches. Again, you will need to adapt your Evaluation Sheets 3, 4, and 5 to suit the point at which you have arrived in the semester and the length and type of speech. Especially early in the semester when communication apprehension is likely to be highest and the speeches shortest, evaluations should be adapted to cover only a few basic matters such as clarity of purpose, organization, and delivery.

Debates. Two of the debate evaluation sheets do not use the Toulmin vocabulary in evaluating debates; one does. The critique sheets vary in format as well: the first sheet (Evaluation Sheet 6) is designed to evaluate individually *all* participants in a debate; the second and third (Evaluation Sheets 7 and 8) emphasize team evaluation.

We have also included an example of a debate flow sheet with teacher comment (p. 38). This approach is by far the most precise way of making particular observations and at the same time keeping a graphic record of the actual "flow" of the debate. Thus, students can see arguments in progress. The main problems with this approach are that it is time-consuming and that students in a particular section may not be ready for or interested in such detailed analysis.

Overall evaluation of the student. There is a very real need to evaluate the overall development of the

student in speech and writing over the whole semester, rather than have the student left with only a pile of papers and critique sheets evaluating particular "products." One of the most graphic ways to present this to the student is to maintain a progress chart on the inside of a manila folder for each student throughout the whole semester (Evaluation Sheet 9). A major advantage to the teacher of such a "flow-chart" approach to evaluation is that one can readily grasp the specific areas in which the student is making little or no progress. When possible, conferences should be arranged to review student work several times during the semester, and the flow chart can be a helpful supplement to whatever papers and comments you may keep on each particular assignment.

Students should write at least an informal paper assessing their overall progress, the areas of greatest development and those where work is still needed. Where audio taping or videotaping is available, you might want to have the student compare an early tape with a late one. It is often a genuine delight to listen to and watch such tapes with students as they hear and see their own development. Such an approach is particularly useful with a student whose entry skills were especially underdeveloped and whose progress has been substantial, even if not at the level of most class members. Such students are likely to feel they have not progressed when in fact progress may have been dramatic. In these cases, individual evaluation of *development* over a semester is even more useful than evaluation of *achievement*.

Evaluation Sheet 1: Group Discussion

Group #_____ Topic_____

Purpose: Was the question for discussion clearly stated? Did the group seem to have a clear understanding of their purpose? Did the group members have a common understanding of the terms in the question?

Organization: Did the group seem orderly and organized? Did they adequately analyze one topic before moving on to the next? Did you feel the emphasis (in terms of time spent discussing a particular point) in their analysis was appropriate for the question they were discussing? Did they avoid digressions and repetition?

Information: Did the group have enough information to thoroughly analyze the question?

Interaction: Was everyone given an opportunity to speak? Did the group seem cooperative rather than competitive? Were the members listening to each other? Did they seem to be interacting rather than giving individual speeches? Did they build on, add to, question, and argue with each other's contributions?

Results: How much progress do you think the group made toward solving the problem or finding an answer to their question? What was your overall reaction to the discussion?

Evaluator_____

Evaluation Sheet 2: Individual Group Member

Participant_____ Date_____

Topic_____

I. Preparation and analysis

A. Did contributions show that group member had adequate information on the topic?
B. Did member offer insightful analysis of topic?
C. Did member state ideas clearly and specifically?

II. Group task roles

A. Did member contribute to group process in such ways as keeping discussion on the topic, summarizing ideas when necessary, moving discussion to the next phase, pointing up issues, and raising meaningful questions?
B. Did member avoid repetition and digressions?

III. Group maintenance roles

A. Did member phrase comments in ways that promote rather than stop or impede discussion?
B. Did member support and encourage reticent group members?

IV. Comments on discussion as a whole

A. Did you find it interesting?
B. Did you find it helpful?
C. What important points were not made?
D. How might the discussion have been better?

Evaluator_____

Evaluation Sheet 3: Speech Evaluation

Speaker's Name: _____ Date_____

Content and Organization: Was the speaker's purpose clear? What was it? In what ways did the speaker communicate the purpose to this audience?

What types of supporting material were used? Was it adequate? Can you give an example of supporting material that was particularly good and tell why?

Was the speaker's organization clear? What were the main points of the speech?

Language: Was the language of the speaker clear and appropriate? Were there any words or phrases that were not clear to you?

Delivery: Was the speaker physically and vocally responsive to the audience? How might the speaker's delivery be improved (by speaking more loudly, less rapidly, with more eye contact, etc.)?

Evaluator_____

Evaluation Sheet 4: Speech Evaluation

Speaker's Name_____ Date_____

Topic_____

I. Explain the purpose of the speech as you heard it.

II. Identify the main points of the speech as you heard them.

III. Evaluate the form and organization of the speech.

IV. Evaluate the supporting material and logical reasoning of the speech. (What types of materials were used? How well were they used? How well was the material adapted to the audience? Were there other materials the speaker could have used to make the speech more interesting?)

V. Evaluate the language of the speech. (Was it clear? interesting? etc.)

VI. Evaluate the delivery.

VII. Evaluate the effect of the speech on you.

Evaluator_____

Evaluation Sheet 5: Persuasive Speech

Speaker's Name_____ Date_____

Topic_____

Clarity of purpose and organization: Did the speaker make the proposition clear and develop it in an organized way?

Development: a) Was there adequate supporting material?

b) Can you give examples of support that was particularly telling? Well documented?

c) Was supporting material clearly related to the main arguments?

Adaptation: Can you cite examples from the speech of any of the following methods of audience adaptation?

a) a purpose particularly appropriate for this situation

b) issues and arguments related to audience interests

c) effective attention material in the Introduction

d) effective appeal for support in the Conclusion

e) materials included to enhance the speaker's ethos with audience

f) use of persuasive language

Delivery: Was the speaker physically and vocally responsive to the audience?

Purpose: What was the speaker's persuasive purpose?

How did the speech affect you?

Evaluator_____

Evaluation Sheet 6: Debate

Proposition:_____

1st Affirmative Speaker:_____ 2nd Affirmative Speaker_____

1st Negative Speaker:_____ 2nd Negative Speaker_____

	1st Affirmative	1st Negative	2nd Affirmative	2nd Negative
Analysis of Topic (Complete? Covered main issues? etc.)				
Evidence and Reasoning				
Organization				
Delivery				

What were the decisive issues of the debate?

Which team did the better debating? Why?

Which team did the better debating? Why?

Other comments:

Other comments:

Evaluator_____

Evaluation Sheet 7: Debate

Proposition:_____

Speakers:

1st Affirmative:_____ 1st Negative_____

2nd Affirmative:_____ 2nd Negative:_____

List (in complete sentences) the issues on which the speakers clashed.

Comment on each team's skill in 1) presenting arguments clearly, 2) supporting them with adequate evidence, 3) refuting opposition arguments, and 4) delivering their arguments.

What is your opinion on the topic?

In your opinion, which side did the better debating and why?

Evaluator_____

Evaluation Sheet 8: Debate Description
(using Toulmin terminology)

Student's Name:_____

I. Claims (major)

A. What were they?

B. Were there too many? Too few? Just enough? Explain.

C. Were the major claims (key issues) emphasized?

(Evaluation Sheet 8: Page 2)

II. Evidence (data, supporting material)

A. Was there any? Was there enough? Explain.

B. Did it meet the "tests of evidence?" Was it clear? Was it accurate? Was it recent? Was it well documented? etc.

C. Were there instances of conflicting evidence? If so, was the conflict resolved? How?

III. Was the evidence related to the claims? How?

IV. In your opinion, which side did the better debating and why?

Evaluator_____

Evaluation Sheet 9: Overall Evaluation Form for Teachers

Areas of Comment	ASSIGNMENTS AND COMMENTS			End of Semester Comments
	#1	#2	#3	
Statement of Thesis or Point of View				
Organization				
Other Skills to be Emphasized				
Overall Comments				

Debate Flow Sheet

PROPOSITION: That private ownership of handguns should be made illegal.

First Affirmative	First Negative	Second Affirmative	Second Negative
I. Handguns kill and maim	I. Yes, but . . .		
A. Deaths	A.		
1. X says FBI statistics show 11,000 per year	1. Statistics questioned a. How many deaths were from long guns?	a,b. Numbers insignificant	a,b. Didn't quantify. How "insignificant"?
	b. Data includes suicide statistics		
	c. X says that FBI data is inaccurate	c. If anything, FBI underestimates	
2. Y says 80% are crimes of passion among family, friends	2. Not true. FBI says 60% of crimes of passion are committed by persons with criminal records	2. Can't have it both ways. Can't tell Aff. FBI data is inaccurate and then use it on Neg.	2. Aff. didn't respond to Neg. argument that most crimes of passion are by criminals
B. Injuries			
1. Z estimates 800,000		1. 800,000 figure repeated	
II. Current laws don't stop gun use			
A. Federal laws ineffective			
1. X says Gun Control Act of 1968 for criminal guns	1. 1968 GCA good		1. Should be <u>enforced</u> better
	a. Y says helps track criminals	a. XX says GCA doesn't stop personal use	
	b. Z says helps eliminate "Saturday night specials"	b. Gun sales have increased 3 million per year	
B. State laws ineffective			
1. Only 8 states have gun registration	1. Other states could adopt registration. What stops them?	a. National Rifle Association lobby. N says NRA among the most powerful and effective lobbies in Washington, D.C., and states	a. If NRA is so powerful, how was 1968 Gun Control Act passed?

4 Problems in Developing and Implementing an Integrated Skills Approach

Several potential problems need to be anticipated when developing and implementing an integrated skills approach. They include: (1) selecting and training staff; (2) choosing essential activities and problems of emphasis; (3) scheduling class time to include the various essential activities; and (4) coping with communication anxiety. In this section, we will suggest various ways of dealing with these problems.

Acquiring Skills and Knowledge for Teaching the Integrated Course

There is at least one prerequisite for all staff members: an interest in and commitment to an integrated skills approach. Those who are wholly unconvinced that such an approach is worthwhile are unlikely to invest the time and energy necessary to help develop such a course. Whether staff members come from a speech communication background or from an English background, they will have to learn about another mode of discourse and about the kinds of activities that will help develop proficiency in the "new" mode.

Since in many cases preservice training is precluded by lack of time and money, we will focus on *inservice training*. At least three kinds of sessions are likely to be useful: viewing taped or live speeches and evaluating them; viewing taped or live discussions, with a focus on group process and evaluating group effectiveness; and viewing taped or live debates and evaluating them.

Viewing taped or live speeches and evaluating them. During this session teachers of an integrated skills course view either videotaped or live speeches. After each speech, each teacher fills out an evaluation form and then all teachers compare their evaluations. Two typical questions are: Should a speech be evaluated according to the same criteria as an essay? and How much weight should be given to the effectiveness of the speaker's delivery? In the previous chapter, we have included a variety of speech evaluation forms that list criteria, indicating that a speaker should be credited no more for well-delivered nonsense than for well-written nonsense. On the other hand, poor delivery may so get in the way of what the speaker is saying as to distract from it. The most useful strategy will be to have those who are expert at evaluating speeches assist with such sessions; seek out the advice of those who teach speech on your campus. (In the bibliography, we have included several discussions of delivery and how it might be treated in the classroom.)

Viewing taped or live discussions with a focus on observing group process and on evaluating group effectiveness. During this session teachers together view group discussions, taking care to observe what is happening by becoming sensitive to the patterns of interaction or communication flow among group members, the various roles discussants may consciously or unconsciously assume, the type of contributions that encourage or impede the flow of discussion, and what factors tend to help or hinder the group's progress toward accomplishing its task. (The bibliography notes several sources of observation instruments that may be used during a group discussion and descriptions of the several roles discussants may assume in group interaction.)

After observation of group process has been sharpened, standards for evaluating discussions and discussants need to be listed. Questions you may want to ask about each discussion are: Did the discussants limit their topic to meet constraints of time and resources? Did the discussants define terms when necessary? Did the discussants appear to accomplish their purpose in the discussion? The previous chapter includes several evaluation forms for discussion. (The bibliography contains a variety of sources for group discussion exercises included earlier in the text.)

Viewing taped or live debates and evaluating them. During this session teachers view several debates in order to familiarize themselves with debate formats, develop skill in plotting (following an argument) through several speeches, and evolve standards for evaluating debate. Chapter 2 contains an example of debate format and Chapter 3 includes an example of a flow sheet which

helps debaters, teacher, and class follow the flow of the arguments in the debate. One may begin to develop skill in plotting arguments on a flow sheet by working first on a formal or informal "debate" in the local newspaper or a national magazine. We have also included some evaluation forms for debates in Chapter 3. Again, it would be particularly useful to ask the school debate coach for advice and guidance. (The bibliography includes several sources particularly useful for those developing a unit on debate.)

Choosing Essential Activities and Problems for Emphasis

"But what's essential?" is usually the first question asked of those espousing an integrated skills approach. That question is still more critical if yours is a one-semester course rather than the two-semester sequence we have detailed earlier.

Several principles are useful in discovering the answer you will find most satisfactory for your own purposes. If your course deals only or chiefly with informative, narrative, and descriptive writing, the activities detailed early in our sequence are most appropriate. If your course attempts to move the student from describing and informing to argumentative discourse, then you will want to choose oral activities that allow the student to make that kind of progression; and you will likely stress exposing students to a range of discourse rather than focusing on any one mode or sub-mode of discourse If your course features lively classroom discussion, then a unit on group process would seem essential, for at least two reasons: to instruct students in group process, and to upgrade all of your classroom discussion.

One overriding principle is useful in any event: when possible, *combine writing and speaking assignments.* For example, if the class is engaged in a problem-solving discussion, assign a paper that asks students to focus on that problem by describing its nature and scope, or a paper exploring at least two alternative solutions to the problem. Such papers will likely improve the quality of the discussion. Or, if the class is engaged in a debate, give a writing assignment that asks the student to support one side or another of the debate proposition, detailing the reasons for supporting that side. On the other hand, if the class is writing a research paper, have students give short extemporaneous speeches about their papers.

Different kinds of evaluations can also be done in essay form. Class members can take notes on speeches, discussions, or debates in class and write detailed evaluations in essay form. They can do the same for out-of-class, public presentations. It is also useful to have students evaluate their own participation in a particular assignment such as debate or discussion, explaining what they gained ("What have you learned about argument as a result of participating in a debate?"), whether they like the activity, how it could be improved, and so forth.

Scheduling Class Time to Include the Various Essential Activities

Unless you customarily schedule a good deal of in-class writing, you may not be prepared for a key problem found by teachers of speech communication skills courses: the amount of class time taken up by performance activities. In a writing lab, all can write at the same time; in a speaking lab, one listens to the speeches one at a time. Another problem is student attention; five speeches in a row may be a bit taxing, especially if delivered by those just gaining confidence and skill.

The problem of class *attention* can be approached in a variety of ways: questions and discussion after each speech; critique sheets where all help all; varying formats; a given assignment "spaced" with other kinds of activities between "speaking days." The problem of class *time* is, in fact, not so much of a "problem" if speeches are used as examples to illustrate principles being taught.

Helping to Alleviate Communication Anxiety

As you well know, many students feel apprehensive about writing. Some students feel even more apprehensive about "speaking in public," even in informal group discussions. Many of your students do little discussing in their classes because of class size or format, and your more reticent students may not "speak up" even in small discussion-oriented classes. Therefore, it will be especially necessary to establish a classroom setting that will be encouraging and to develop a course format where students first get to know each other and talk to one another in less formal speech activity. That is why we have outlined a progression that begins with less formal interpersonal speech communication activities and moves through group discussions with a problem-solving orientation to more formal oral activities such as speeches and debate. (In the bibliography you will find materials that may deepen your understanding of communication reticence and that suggest strategies for coping with it.)

The four problems we have outlined above are challenging but clearly surmountable. Over the past five years, we have worked to train personnel from the departments of English, communication studies, comparative literature, linguistics, philosophy, history, business administration, and education to teach an integrated skills approach. Many began with concern over learning to teach writing, but more began by saying, "But I don't know the first thing about teaching speech." They came to the course, however, with a clear conviction that an integrative approach is indeed a useful way of teaching discourse. We hope that you too share that conviction and that you will have as much real sense of accomplishment and—yes—fun as we do.

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